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ABSTRACT

It seems likely that, as more handicapped students are being integrated in regular classrooms, teachers will need effective skills and strategies for working with children with handicapping conditions. This report discusses a set of teaching competency statements which address students' affective domain behaviors. The focus encompasses generic affective competencies (GACs) which appear to be a common bond between special and regular classroom teachers. The GAC statements result from observed teacher behavior and theoretical considerations. A review of relevant literature is given as background for the 41 field-tested skill statements, which are grouped into three clusters of teaching behavior: establishing an affective climate; managing behavior conflicts and crises; and using positive classroom management practices. The importance and implications of the three clusters are discussed, with references to recent studies and reports. A summary is given, and a list of the references used in the text is appended. (PG)

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"Generic affective competencies for teachers of socially and emotionally disturbed adolescents"

-Final draft-

(2/81)

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Introduction

Any number of different social or emotional adjustment difficulties may prevent a student from achieving their full educational potential. A student's feelings, beliefs and behaviors are critical in the learning process. Limited self-esteem may distort an individual's experiences or inhibit their participation in learning activities. Disruptive, irresponsible or maladaptive behavior patterns can seriously reduce instructional interactions, both qualitatively and quantitatively. Value-related conflicts and ineffective reasoning processes may delimit school motivation and compliance. Any or all of these can precipitate a negative self-fulfilling prophecy and subsequently influence a teacher's instructional behaviors.

Youngsters who are characterized by any of the classifications of learning handicaps (TEA, 1979) are especially vulnerable to situations and experiences that precipitate the kinds of social and emotional conflicts which inhibit learning. The more frequently, chronically and intensely (Pattavina and Gotts, 1979) that a youngster's affective-functioning conflicts with learning, the more likely it is that a youngster will subsequently become characterized further by academic retardation, limited intellectual development and inadequate preparedness for adult adjustment (Robins, 1966; Bruner, 1971; Gallagher and Harris, 1976; Morse, 1979, 1977; Schafer and Polk, 1967; Balthazar and Stevens, 1975).

Preparing teachers to manage adolescents who exhibit serious social and emotional adjustment difficulties remains an issue of concern. With the current prospect of more handicapped students

being integrated in regular classrooms, it seems likely that educators will be facing more, rather than fewer, management problems. Consequently, teachers will need more effective skills and strategies for managing a more diversified population of adolescents.

What are the competencies necessary to work with exceptional children who manifest a variety of handicapping conditions? For a long period, the response of the field of special education to this question was categorical in nature. For example, the question was stated as, "What are the competencies required to work with children who are mentally retarded; emotionally disturbed; or visually handicapped?" The outcomes of this point of view were evidenced in teacher training and state licensing arrangements, as well as the ways that services were made available to children in public school.

The issue of generic competencies has come to the foreground as varieties of appropriate instructional arrangements have emerged in accordance with federal and state regulations and policies. When resource and helping teacher arrangements become used in lieu of self-contained and categorically homogenous classes, teachers were expected to function cross-categorically to meet the needs of children with a variety of diagnoses. The current emphasis on least restrictive environment has moved a similar responsibility partly back into the mainstream and on the regular classroom teacher.

Described in this report are a set of teaching competencies addressed towards a student's affective domain behaviors. Thus, the focus of the present report encompasses generic affective competencies which appear to be a common bond between special and regular classroom teachers, and of special importance for teachers of socially and emotionally disturbed adolescents.

Definitions

generic*:	1. of, applied to, or referring to a kind, class or group; comprehensive; inclusive or general: opposed to specific, special
affect*:	an emotion, feeling or mood as a factor in behavior
competence*:	1. sufficient means for one's needs or for a comfortable existence. 2. ability; skill; fitness

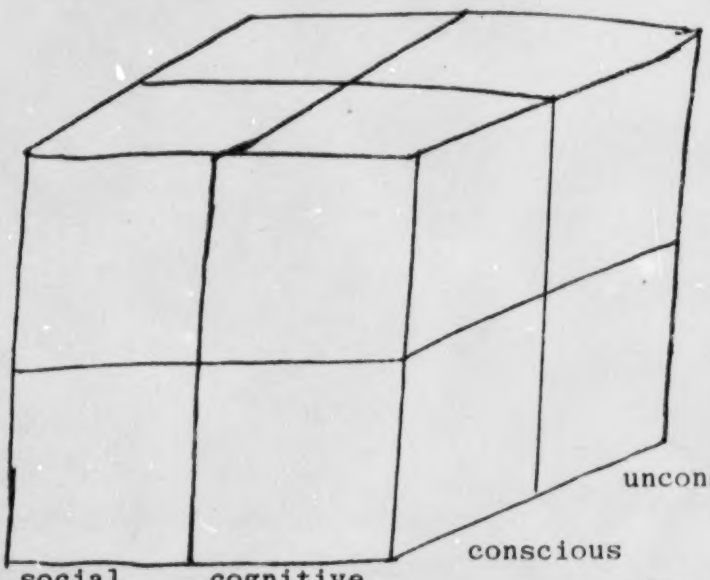
* (Webster's New World Dictionary: College Edition, 1960)

Feelings, beliefs and behaviors: dimensions of affective disturbance

Disruptive, irresponsible and maladaptive behaviors exhibited by youngsters in educational and treatment-oriented settings may be numerous and take a variety of forms (Grosenick and Huntze, 1980; Pattavina and Gotts, 1979). Major 'dimensions of affective disturbance' are shown following in Figure 1. As learning handicapped students, especially ones who are socially or emotionally maladjusted, are especially prone to exhibit problems with any or all of these areas of affective functioning, teachers will need skills whereby these difficulties are not allowed to inhibit instruction or simply impede the individual student's development. Stated differently, teachers need skills to address student learning problems in the affective, behavioral and cognitive domains.

Figure 1

"Dimensions of affective disturbance"



Generic affective competencies: a common bond

"Generic affective competencies (Gotts et al, 1978; Pattavina and Ramirez, 1980) are teaching skills that seem important for meeting a range of instructional objectives regardless of one's theoretical orientation. Three broad categories of affective teaching behaviors identified in the model are those required by any effective teacher who attempts to motivate, understand, involve, manage and teach individuals who are vulnerable in educational settings. (see Table 1 following)

Table 1

"Generic affective competencies model: Competency clusters"

I. Establishing the affective climate of the classroom
II. Managing conflicts and crises
III. Using positive classroom management practices

The generic affective competency model identifies how teachers can systematically attend to the needs of behavior-disordered students through specific practices of instruction, interaction and classroom management. Classroom teachers are understood in this regard to potentially have significant influence on the perceptions, feelings, thinking patterns, and behavioral habits of 'vulnerable' adolescents. By establishing interactions and relationships with students in ways that generate effective

patterns of disposition, communication and reward (Thomas, 1978), it seems likely that the opportunities for learning can become increased continuously (Morse, 1979).

The list of generic affective competency statements described in this report are the result of (1) a review of relevant literature, (2) direct observation, (3) consensual validation field testing, and (4) a revision of the competency statements based on the outcome of the consensual validation. Subsequent research activities being conducted or designed need to ultimately achieve an empirical validation of the competencies over a period of time.

The validity and reliability of the discrete skills (n=41) comprising the original GAC model were field-tested in several different ways.

	Perceived relevance	Self-rated competence	Frequency of use
a) expert validation	✓		
b) SPED teacher validation	✓	✓	✓
c) RED teacher validation	✓	✓	
d) Bilingual/cultural teacher validation	✓		

Specific questions remaining problemmatic are related to the value of the competencies for promoting 'child change' and the extent to which affective competencies can be developed by teachers through training.

The specific generic affective competencies are those skills, knowledges, and attitudes which are important for a teacher's successful dealing with affective domain behaviors of secondary

level exceptional students. It may be that there is considerable commonality of these competencies with those required by any teacher to work effectively with affective domain behaviors of any secondary level students.

The competency statements developed through the process described in the preceding section are presented in Table 2 following. As already stated, the 'generic affective competency' model incorporates three broad domains of teaching behavior. These include (a) establishing an affective climate, (b) managing behavior conflicts and crises, and (c) using positive classroom management practices.

In a general way, the first category relates to the student's 'affective' domain from an experiential frame of reference. The second category addresses the student's 'behavioral' domain. The third category encompasses the 'cognitive' domain, in reference to academic learning for secondary affective growth; and direct affective instruction for meeting a student's primary affective needs. Each dimension of teaching competency is a reflection of the different ways that affect is exhibited, experienced and has proven influential in the process of classroom learning.

Table 2

"Generic affective competency statements" (n=41)

I. Creating Affective Climate

1. Use "accepting" rather than "rejecting" language
2. Focus on feelings and reflect them accurately
3. Plan for success by gearing expectations and activities to each student's level of achievement
4. Make use of students' interests to enhance the meaningfulness of activities
5. Involve students in creating limits and learning activities
6. Give clear, simple instructions, one at a time
7. Initiate contact with resistive students
8. Recognize and acknowledge student efforts
9. Give a student corrections without criticism

II. Managing Conflicts, Crises and the Classroom

10. Accept and recognize feelings accurately
11. Leave responsibility for resolution with the student
12. Communicate confidence in the student's ability to learn and grow
13. Invite, but do not force communication with a student
14. Maintain a goal-oriented, problem solving approach to conflict
15. View conflict as an opportunity for student growth
16. Use "I messages" to convey feelings
17. Control personal impulses in order to choose a response which will de-escalate the conflict
18. Disengage from arguments to avoid power struggles
19. Recognize areas of least effectiveness regarding the management of student conflicts
20. Model effective alternatives for students to cope with conflict
21. Admit mistakes to students
22. Convey calm confidence during conflict and do not blame
23. Establish contact with a student after conflict with them

III. Using Positive Classroom Management Practices

24. Structure the environment and activities to facilitate group learning
25. Use questions rather than statements to remind students of limits
26. Depersonalize rules
27. Monitor several activities simultaneously
28. Be enthusiastic regarding activities
29. Selectively ignore behaviors that are not overly disruptive
30. Offer alternatives rather than commands
31. Remind students of previous successes
32. Use humor to decontaminate stressful situations
33. Control behavior through proximity and non-verbal feedback
34. Avoid punitive, rejecting and absolute responses
35. State expectations clearly and briefly
36. Give disciplinarian feedback to students in private to avoid a ripple effect.
37. Do not force students to make 'pledges of good conduct'
38. Allow students to search for alternatives to punishment
39. Reinterpret adult limits as protections
40. Leave responsibility for change with the student
41. Allow students to experience natural and logical consequences of behavior

Establishing climate, trust and rapport

The importance of establishing a healthy 'climate' in the classroom has to do with the quality of interactions that take place between teacher and students, as well as among the individual and groups of students themselves (Moos, 1979). Learning handicapped students are especially prone to the kinds of affective difficulties which often may inhibit or distort their participation and experiences in learning or social activities. Consequently, the manner in which teachers are able to generate adaptive feelings in students is an important issue.

Brendtro (1980) suggested that teacher-student relationships are important in the instructional process because they improve the chances for effective communication and learning, as well as the value of teacher reinforcements. Similarly, others have urged that 'interpersonal qualities' (Frank, 1979) and 'relationships' (Morse, 1979) are more important variables than the technique one uses to influence an individual's social or emotional adjustment. In a review of reports concerning skills needed by teachers of the emotionally disturbed, it was concluded that tolerance for anxiety and violence, as well as personal qualities of energy and enthusiasm were important teacher qualifications (Herr, 1974).

The significance of interpersonal relationship variables to the process of instruction has been established through different lines of research. An extensive number of studies concerning teacher-student relationships identified a range of ways that teacher expectations can influence the learning achievement and behavior of different students (Brophy and Good, 1974). In a

related way, it was found in another study that failing to curb the social rejection of handicapped students may lead to a range of other problems (Leyser and Gottleib, 1980).

Though individual teachers can be seen to vary widely in the way they relate to students, there appear to be a number of strategies which can be developed through training (Aspy and Roebuck, 1979). Using 'accepting' vs. 'rejecting' language, for example, (GAC #1) will probably influence the comfort level of different students in the class. "Good morning; good to see ya" vs. "Not you again!" is an example of how such affective messages are communicated verbally. Though it may seem unlikely for any teacher to say something as obviously rejecting as the latter statement, it is important to understand that affective messages are also communicated non-verbally and through verbal intonations (Izard, 1977). Thus, apart from verbalizations, facial expressions and body language are two predominant ways that individuals communicate their feelings.

Brown (1975) described seventeen considerations for teachers attempting to improve the 'classroom climate' for learning. These stemmed from Roger's views that teachers need three qualities to create a sound learning environment:

1) realness or genuineness
2) attitude of acceptance and trust
3) empathic and understanding

In another report, affective teaching skills were reported to fall in one of three general categories of functioning (Aspy

and Roebuck, 1979): a) empathy b) congruence c) positive self-regard.

More recently, a construct model designed to examine affective teaching skills was reported to include four predominant modes by which a teacher could express 'empathy' to students (Morgan, 1979). These modes were listed as 1) management of instruction, 2) organization of environment, 3) responding to feelings and emotional well-being and 4) interpersonal qualities.

Two recent studies of student relationships described the beneficial influence of 'cooperative goal-structuring' during some learning activities. In one, the interaction between handicapped and non-handicapped students became more encouraging, supportive and reinforcing as a result of this reinforcement procedure (Johnson et al, 1979). Similarly, there was an increase of positive interactions and interpersonal attraction between non-handicapped and Down syndrome students when this procedure was used (Rynders et al, 1980).

Factors of the instructional process which determine classroom climate have been reported in two major research efforts (Moos, 1979; Solomon and Kendall, 1979). The major 'dimensions' of classroom climate identified by Moos (1979) include a) relationship, b) management and c) instruction. These dimensions are comparable to the three competency clusters which comprise the GAC model, thus suggesting the relevance of the generic affective competencies to current research findings.

While findings by Moos (1979) and others may suggest the totality of classroom operations is what determines classroom

climate, the GAC model has placed a special significance on interpersonal relationships in this regard.

The GAC model identifies three sub-clusters of competencies a teacher will use to establish classroom climate, trust and rapport.

a) developing communicative relationships

b) enhancing...efficacy, or self-esteem

c) promoting relevance, reward..., or motivation to learn

Managing conflicts and crises

The management of behavior in classrooms or instructional settings has been a concern for educators at all levels, though possibly of greatest concern in secondary schools. One may find that being a high school teacher involves more than having subject-matter expertise. It may be readily apparent that one must do more than transmit information to groups of adolescents who are waiting, or at least willing, to store important new content and skills. One may understand that adolescents in public school are not all motivated to pursue academic learning activities; concerned about similar values; capable of profiting from traditional instruction; or responsive to what may seem reasonable methods of controlling behavior.

It is of utmost importance to understand that behavior management is a) necessary for learning to occur, b) practiced by persons in many disciplines and c) only one segment of the more comprehensive task of classroom management. Both classroom and behavior management are essential if one hopes to effectively promote learning among all students. Both are most effective when planned, and tailored to individual needs. Both need to be understood as a process of inter-relating factors involving the student, the learning task and the instructional strategies of the teacher.

Ideally, a teacher's use of management strategies will change in different situations and with students who are at different levels of development. Very 'directive' strategies (e.g. token reinforcement; anti-septic bouncing) may be highly appropriate

for some students at certain times, but not for others. Students who chronically exhibit 'severe' behavior problems, for example, or ones with limited IQ are more likely to benefit from management strategies that are directive rather than insight-oriented (Thomas, 1978; Balthazar and Stevens, 1975).

There are many ways one might respond to an adolescent's provocative, irresponsible, or maladaptive behaviors. Sometimes a response is the result of a) a mood, b) an attitude towards the student, c) a sense of threat, danger or loss of control, or d) a sense of nurturance towards another individual or group being effected by the identified problem student. These all reflect 'decisions' about management which were prompted by an affective factor of the teacher.

Responses are sometimes based on theoretical or competency-based training. Management decisions in these instances can be stimulated predominantly by beliefs about the effectiveness or appropriateness of specific techniques or strategies. Teachers trained according to principles of operant conditioning, for example, might respond to classroom conflicts differently from teachers trained to use psychodynamic or psychoeducational procedures.

Broadly speaking, teachers have a limited number of options when one or more students are exhibiting inappropriate behavior. Long and Newman (1976) described these as 1) ignore, 2) tolerate, 3) prevent or 4) interfere.

Once a teacher has made the decision to interfere with ongoing misbehavior, their response will often be a critical determinant of how the situation will evolve. For this reason, the GAC model addresses the area of crisis management from a learning standpoint and as an interactional process between the teacher and student.

There are a number of different ways that teachers might respond to manage a conflict or crisis situation once the decision has been made (consciously or unconsciously) to intervene. After a review of many reports concerning crisis management (Pattavina, 1980) it would appear that four different categories of response-strategies are available, some of which are planned while others are spontaneous.

1. directive
2. punitive
3. accommodative
4. exploitative

'Directive' strategies are used to exert an immediate influence on current behavior. Included in this category would be a number of different procedures described as surface-management strategies (Long and Newman, 1976; Redl and Wineman, 1952). In addition, directive strategies might also include different interaction styles of teachers, called 'control clusters' (Fink et al, 1976).

While it is relatively easy to respond to conflict with anger or a desire to 'punish', it is important to keep in mind that the problem existing between the teacher and student has optional ways of being resolved. It is the 'problem' that needs

to be the focal concern, not the reactive feelings of either student or teacher. Reactive or impulsive feelings tend to inhibit the ability to think clearly or reason logically (Bruner et al, 1956). By controlling these impulsive reactions, the teacher has the opportunity to consider other response options. If we, as educators, expect students to control their impulsive behaviors then we need to demonstrate such control ourselves.

Disengaging from power-struggles, for example, (GAC #18) is best understood from the perspective of interpersonal dynamics. They can be seen as a 'game' where one person is attempting to win something, or benefit in some way, at the expense of someone else (Berne, 1964). Teachers can avoid devisive interactions like these by simply withdrawing from the argument (e.g. "I'm not going to argue with you about this.")

Some responses are planned, while many others are probably unplanned. For example, an adolescent may unexpectedly exhibit some type of personal problem or distress during school. Without having intended or prepared in any way, a teacher may need to respond supportively to such a student. In other instances, the same type of teacher response might also have been 'planned' if some type of student distress were anticipated as a result of assessment or programming procedures.

Some management responses are intended only to 'accommodate' a student, or help that student to get through a difficult situation. Students experiencing some type of emotional or social crisis, for example, may need to be situationally or immediately supported in order to complete a current activity or task. Similarly, when two students get into a fight, the conflict needs to be curtailed;

reasoning and perceptions need to be clarified; and feelings need to be somehow resolved before the learning task or activity can be resumed and completed. These might also be seen comparable to strategies described as 'emotional first-aid on the spot' (Redl and Wineman, 1952).

Other responses and strategies are oriented more towards a specific social or emotional learning need exhibited by a student. Students who exhibit chronic types of adjustment problems, for example, may be able to profit from an ensuing conflict situation by way of a teacher's responses at that point in time. There may be no better time to teach a student 'accountability', for example, than at a time when the student is engaged in non-accountability. Likewise, a student's 'values' can be 'clarified' during situations where optional choices can be made, each resulting in different 'natural and logical' consequences. These kinds of intervention practices might also be described as 'clinical exploitation of life events' (Redl and Wineman, 1952).

Management responses will also differ in terms of which realm of student functioning is being addressed and the degree to which affect is a consideration (Prawat, 1980). After observing irresponsible behavior, for example, a teacher may determine that a student needs to 'feel better' about themselves and act accordingly. A different teacher perception might be that the student needs help with 'self-control', and thus devise an appropriate intervention strategy. Still another interpretation of the behavior might be that the student needs, 'instructional assistance' and consequently, tries to help the student achieve more successfully.

Each of these 'decisions' about student needs will result in a different type of teacher behavior or intervention strategy.

To summarize, it is the teacher's task, when confronted with a disruptive or irresponsible student, to first insure the physical safety of that student, other students and themselves. Following that, the teacher can take steps to reduce the student's precipitating anxiety, stress or frustration, which will in some cases necessitate removing the student from the room. Once the disruptive or irresponsible behavior has subsided, it seems critical that someone helps the student develop an understanding of the conflict-dynamics. Finally, it will often be necessary for communication to be re-established between the student and teacher before academic instruction resumes.

To whatever extent a teacher is able, there will be a need to manage the affective functioning (i.e. behaviors) of students prone to such influences. On one level, teachers can use accommodative skills and strategies in an attempt to offset any disruptive affective factors impinging on a student's learning and development. On a different response level, teachers can plan specific teaching-related strategies for promoting some type of affective growth.

Using positive classroom management practices

Given the fact that students with social and emotional adjustment difficulties will react to various facets of their environment, teachers are often advised to 'structure' the classroom (Dunkin and Biddle, 1974). The GAC model addresses this need through both the 'physical' and 'procedural' structures of a classroom or learning environment.

Individual teacher decision-making is the process which determines any classroom's physical and procedural structure (Shavelson, 1975). While experts disagree somewhat about specific instructional decisions required of teachers, there is general agreement about groups of such decisions (Gotts, 1974). Some of these include:

1) what to teach - deciding on objectives
2) how to sequence objectives
3) appropriate teaching methods or procedures
4) what materials to use
5) how to establish a behavior management system
6) how to organize time during the school day
7) how to group students for instruction
8) how to organize the classroom environment
9) how and what to evaluate
10) how to use resources (e.g. teacher aids; consultants)

Competencies needed to determine a classroom's structural and procedural environment will in many ways be synonymous with those needed for establishing the classroom climate. Similarly, the way a teacher responds to conflicts and crises may be an outgrowth of both the existing 'climate' and 'structure'.

For example, with the advent of IEP^{S} for learning handicapped students, there will be a need for teachers to deviate from traditional group instruction. It thereby is important that a teacher can effectively monitor several activities occurring simultaneously in the classroom (GAC #27). By maintaining this sense of 'withitness' (Kounin and Obradovic, 1976) many potential crises can be "nipped in the bud." This will require such things as effective grouping; material preparation; procedures for giving feedback to students; and an effective understanding of individual student needs.

Managing transitions from one activity to another has proved to be a concern for teachers at all grade levels, since the process of changing activities can precipitate a number of different social or emotional conflicts. Helpful strategies a teacher could employ to reduce or avoid possible difficulty will depend largely on the nature of students in the class. Because many disturbed and maladjusted youth may have limited or distorted concepts of time (Reich, 1969) a teacher may need to establish routines; remind students prior to the end or beginning of new activities; or inform them of the exact or approximate amount of time that activities will last. An affective goal of such strategies is to allow students a sense of 'predictability' about

Issues of teaching concern in this regard are, stimulus intensity (Zeaman and House, 1963); linguistic complexity (Cherkes, 1975); content relevance (Schafer and Polk, 1967); clarity (Klausmeier et al, 1974); and satiation effects (Cofer and Apley, 1964). Relatedly, the 'format' in which instruction is presented can influence subsequent cognitive activity, affective reactions and social behavior (Bruner, Goodnow and Austin, 1956; Bruner, 1966; Cawley, Goodstein and Burrow, 1972; Pattavina, 1973).

In some classrooms, a teacher is able to design learning activities addressed primarily to affective, or social-emotional objectives. Any number of different affective learning objectives may be deemed as necessary or beneficial for an individual or group of students (Berkovitz, 1978). Examples of specific affective instructional procedures and strategies reported in the literature include the following.

-teaching self-concept (Hamilton, Fleming and Hicks, 1976; Howe and Howe, 1975)

-improving social status (Leyser and Gottleib, 1980)

-promoting group interaction and acceptance (Rynders et al, 1980; Johnson et al, 1979)

-teaching ethical and altruistic concerns (Kobak, 1979)

-enhancing accountability and self-regulation (Hoover, 1978; Thomas, 1978)

-improving race relations (Slavin and Madden, 1979)

-developing self-control (Fagan, Long and Stevens, 1979; Pressley, 1979; Goodwin and Mahoney, 1975)

-developing moral-reasoning (Muson, 1979)

In other instances, a teacher can focus on 'enabling' affective objectives, thereby increasing the student's chances of succeeding academically, and receiving positive reinforcement for adaptive behavior (Hops and Cobb, 1972). It is the student's 'developmental' level which determines what the affective objectives will need to be like.

Other competencies included under 'positive classroom management practices' concern the ongoing or systematic management of student behavior. Again, some of the skills identified in this competency cluster are also appropriate for managing conflicts and crises, or establishing climate.

Teachers are advised, for example, to express enthusiasm about activities during the course of instruction (GAC #28) in order to enhance student motivation or interest. Some of the reasons for inhibited student motivation may include the time of day; the nature of the activity; or prior events. At times like these, a teacher's expression of feelings can affect student behavior in critical ways. If a teacher expresses apathy or tedium, as opposed to enthusiasm, student behavior is likely to follow the principles of contagion (Redl and Wineman, 1952).

Reminding students of previous successes (GAC #31) can help to activate participation. For the sake of motivation and self-esteem it will be important that learning handicapped students maintain awareness of capabilities and strengths. When faced

with new or difficult situations and learning activities, some students may find it more comfortable to "lay down and play dead." Students will need to be coached and supported during these kinds of experiences. For example, "Remember how well you did (such and such)?"

In a different way, when a teacher senses tension with an individual or group of students it may sometimes be helpful to lighten the mood. Tension and stress are associated with anxiety, and learning hinges critically on the amount of anxiety being experienced. Laughter and humor have a way of relieving tension in individuals, and can change the course of what otherwise might be a disruptive situation.

Many behaviors can be managed through proximity and non-verbal feedback. It, in fact, is totally unnecessary for every misbehavior and emergent act of deviance to be verbally proclaimed in public. Often, situations can be controlled by the way you look at a student, or by standing next to an individual or group. This does not require the teacher to interrupt instruction and does not force other students to stop what they're doing to attend to the misbehavior. Fink et al (1976) described this as a 'neutral facilitator' strategy.

To summarize, effective classroom management practices can be seen to involve a range of inter-related teaching competencies, all of which are needed for establishing a learning environment that is responsive to the needs of individual students. Three major clusters of responsibility will include variables of a) the physical and affective environment, b) curriculum and instruction and c) individual reward-structure systems that

stimulate and reinforce learning and adjustment (Hewett and Forness, 1977). As the learning needs of students become more diverse or extensive, there will be a need for greater control of these classroom management variables. In other words, the instructional process needs to become more structured or directive in relation to the severity of an individual student's affective learning difficulties.

Summary

Secondary level students who exhibit social or emotional adjustment difficulties can prove taxing on teachers in either regular or special class settings. Many handicapped youngsters anticipate difficulty, failure, incompetence and rejection to be associated with learning or social activities as a result of past experiences and conditioned beliefs about personal skills, attributes or capacities (Rosenburg, 1979; Hamachek, 1978).

Teachers need a range of competencies in order for learning handicapped students to be able to achieve and adapt in either regular or special class settings. 'Specialized' teaching competencies have been reported for persons working with specific populations of students. Presumably, there are special competencies needed for teaching students who are ED, which differ from those competencies needed for teaching students who are LD; MR; physically handicapped, etc. This notion has also been reflected in teacher training programs and certification standards.

The recent movement in some states towards generic teaching certificates is based partly on the assumption that different learning handicaps are frequently overlapping. It's not uncommon to find that some ED students will also exhibit specific learning disabilities and vice versa. The same is true for individuals who are MR or physically handicapped, etc.

A set of inter-related teaching behaviors, described as 'generic affective competencies' are described in this report as having importance for meeting the affective learning needs of

handicapped adolescents. The GAC model incorporates three major clusters of teaching competencies: a) establishing climate, trust and rapport, b) managing conflicts and crises, c) using positive classroom management practices.

The generic affective competencies are an outgrowth of both observed teaching behavior and theoretical considerations. In formulating the list of statements, the authors drew from psychodynamic, developmental and behavioral theories of learning. The skills in part assume a broad conceptual basis in mediational learning theory, as opposed to simple associative or reinforcement learning theory. Children are viewed as mediating organisms who are continually acting and reacting not only to external events around them, but also to internal phenomena and information processing capacities that develop with age, exposure, and teaching in a systematically spiralling fashion.

What is the importance of the affective competencies?

1. motivating (or activating a student's drive to achieve learning; complate tasks, etc.)
2. rewarding students for correct responses and adaptive behavior
3. involving student's interest and attention in learning activities and school
4. managing crisis behaviors
5. perceiving needs and experiences which students exhibit during learning and socialization activities
6. demonstrating or modeling optional ways of responding to stress and solving problems

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